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THE INDONESIAN AND ENGLISH ARGUMENT STRUCTURE: A CROSS-CULTURAL RHETORIC OF ARGUMENTATIVE TEXTS

Safnil Arsyad'

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ABSTRACT

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This study examined and compared the rhetorical structure of argumentative texts written by three groups of university students: 1° twenty Indonesian texts written by Indonesian native speakers (I.I); 2° ten English texts written by Indonesian native speakers (I.E); and 3° ten English texts written by English native speakers (A.E). Following the argumentative text analysis model developed by Tirkkonen-Condit (1984 and 1986) and Connor (1990), the data were analysed using top-down and bottom-up analysis techniques at macro organisational text level. The results indicated that the text organisational structures of argumentative texts in English and in Indonesian were different in respect of the frequency of occurrence of sections—introduction, evaluation and conclusion—and of the sub-sections of refutation, sub-claim, and induction within the problem section. Cultural differences between English and Indonesian may have played a crucial role in the text rhetorical differences. Also, the I.E. text features are more similar to those of the A.E. texts than to those of the I.I. texts. The study indicates that the Indonesian students need to study the conventions of rhetorical structures and text features of English argumentative texts in order to be able to write good argumentative texts in English.

INTRODUCTION

The question of whether or not cultural thought patterns influence language product, especially in written form, has become the object of an on-going debate since Kaplan introduced the controversial issue in his seminal work (Kaplan 1972). In fact, Kaplan followed the "Sapir-Worf hypothesis of linguistic relativity" which suggests that "different languages affect perception and thought in different ways" (Connor 1996:28). Since then, a number of comparative rhetorical studies have been carried out in an attempt to examine the claim that the thought pattern may or may not affect the rhetorical structure of a particular language.

Indonesian language is unique, especially from the socio-cultural, geographical and historical perspectives. Geographically, Indonesia is one of the eastern or oriental countries which, according to Kaplan (1972), have an indirect or circular rhetorical style. In other words, it is expected that Indonesian rhetorical styles should be similar to those of Chinese or Japanese. However, historically, Indonesia was a Dutch colony for about three and a half centuries; the colonisation era might have influenced the Indonesian rhetorical style by exposing it to the rhetoric of Medieval European culture (including Dutch) which, according to Kaplan, has a linear style. Another influence might have come from the Islamic culture as Islam is the major religion in

Indonesia. Islamic culture is influenced by Arabic culture since the majority of the Islamic references are in Arabic. Indonesian rhetoric might have also been affected by Arabic which, according to Kaplan, has a parallel rhetorical style. In other words, the Indonesian rhetorical style, although geographically associated with the oriental style, may have some characteristics which are different from the oriental rhetorical styles.

Contrastive Rhetorical Studies on Argumentative Texts

Several cross-cultural studies on argumentative texts between the English texts and the texts in the oriental group of languages have been carried out. Choi (1988), for example, has examined and compared the rhetorical structures of English argumentative texts written by English native speakers and Korean native speakers and the Korean argumentative texts produced by Korean native speakers. He found that the English and Korean argumentative texts written by Korean native speakers have no single predominant pattern but the English texts by the English native speakers tend to follow a linear pattern in which every claim in the texts is followed by supporting ideas and then by concluding units. The similarity between the three groups of text, according to Choi, is that they all have a claim as an initial unit presenting the writer's point and address the situation and evaluation sections. However, Choi concludes that, with respect to linearity in text structure, the English texts produced by the Korean students are more similar to the native English model than to the native Korean model. Choi's interpretation is that this phenomenon might be due to the fact that the Korean students who wrote in English had been studying in the United States for more than two years; their rhetorical style may have been influenced by the rhetorical styles of English.

Choi's findings are in line with those of Egginton (1987) who suggests that whether or not academic (argumentative) text structures in English by Korean writers are similar to those of English native speakers depends on whether or not the writers of the texts have been trained in an English speaking country. In other words, both Choi and Egginton claim that educational experiences play a more crucial role in determining the preferred rhetorical style that a student writer is going to use in his/her composition than the cultural background of the student.

In their study of Chinese students' argumentative texts (another member of Kaplan's oriental group of languages), Mohan and Lo (1985) found that any rhetorical problems when writing in English are nothing to do with the influence of Chinese rhetorical patterns; they are the common problems experienced by all inexperienced or novice writers. Mohan and Lo go on to claim that not all Chinese writing style is circular and give further examples of deductive paragraphs taken from the Analects and from several Chinese books on composition in which students are taught the importance of each paragraph containing a main idea. A similar claim has been put forward by Kirkpatrick (1994 and 1997), who points out that, unlike the Japanese, the rhetorical style of Chinese expository writing is more likely to be influenced by the Western (English) rhetorical style than by the rhetorical style of their first language.

The studies disproving Kaplan's claim are numerous. Kirkpatrick (1994, 1997), for example, claims that the difference in the rhetorical text structure does not have much to do with the difference in cultural thought patterns; it is only a matter of choice or preference. Kirkpatrick further claims that, although a particular pattern is common in a particular culture, such a pattern does not belong only to that culture; other cultures may have used such a pattern as well for a particular purpose. In addition, Liddicoat (1997) argues that within a particular culture there is a range of appropriate styles; the appropriateness is determined by the communicative needs of a particular discourse community which can be different from those in another discourse community within the same culture.

One of the few study results supporting Kaplan's claim on the culture influencing the thought pattern was carried out by Rubin, *et al.* (1990). She carried out a study on argumentative texts in English by Japanese students and discovered that Japanese students tend to avoid showing their position or side in an argument; this is intentionally done in order to be fair. Rubin claims that this is the way Japanese students are educated throughout their education experience—that is, not to be for or against anyone or anything. Rubin's interpretation is that the way the Japanese students write an argumentative text when writing in English reflects their cultural preference and this is a clear indication of the influence of cultural background on the student's writing style, although they are composing in a language other than their first language.

In summary, research findings disproving Kaplan's culture-rhetoric hypothesis are more numerous than those supporting it. However, one of the problems in the previous comparative rhetoric studies is that they were mainly carried out on English texts written by native speakers of other languages. This, according to Kirkpatrick, is not a valid investigation technique. As suggested by Hind (1983), in order to know the exact text organisational pattern common or preferred in a particular language or culture, the texts in the particular language written by native speakers of the language for an audience that speaks that language must be analysed. In order to know the common text organisational structure in Indonesian, for example, investigation should be done on texts in Indonesian written by Indonesian native speakers for an Indonesian audience.

THE STUDY

Aims

This study focuses on examining argumentative texts in two different languages—English and Indonesian—written by university students in their respective native languages. Another group of texts in the corpus of this study is the English texts produced by the Indonesian native speakers in order to examine if educational experience can influence rhetorical structures in an argumentative text. The research question for this study is: "How do the three groups of texts differ or resemble each other based on the top-down and bottom-up analyses or based on the dialogic and monologic processes?"

The rationale for the choice of the writing type (argumentative) is that writing an argumentative text involves a reasoning process which is poten-

tially bound to cultures. Since there has not been any formal attempt (to my knowledge) to examine the rhetorical styles of Indonesian argumentative texts written by Indonesian native speakers for Indonesian readers or audience, this study becomes the first work on this issue. This study also becomes important and necessary because more and more Indonesian students pursue their postgraduate study in an English speaking country, not only in the hard or natural sciences field but also in the fields of social sciences and the humanities. According to Ballard and Clanchy (1984), university students, especially in the fields of social sciences and humanities in an English speaking country such as Australia, are often required to write essays which involve presenting logical arguments. Therefore, Indonesian students have to be familiar with the conventional ways of presenting arguments acceptable in English in order to be able to write a good academic English essay.

The subjects of this study are forty university students divided into three different groups. In the first group were twenty Indonesian students (Indonesian native speakers) studying in the third year of their four year undergraduate program in the Indonesian Department, the Faculty of Education, University of Bengkulu, Indonesia in 1993. The second group was made up of ten Indonesian university students (Indonesian native speakers) studying at undergraduate and postgraduate levels at the University of Canberra and the Australian National University. These students have been in Canberra for at least one year, but before coming to Canberra they had also attended intensive English courses in Indonesia with English native speaker teachers for at least six months. Some of these students are English teachers at an Indonesian university, suggesting that they have a good command of English. In the final group were ten Australian Students (English native speakers) studying in undergraduate programs at the University of Canberra. All data were collected in early 1993. In order to collect the data from the subjects, they were assigned to write an argumentative text of about 300 to 500 words long in thirty minutes on a given topic—namely, to argue against smoking in public places. The characteristics of the corpus and the subjects of the study can be summarised in Table 1 below.

Texts and Languages	Writers	Codes
1. 20 Indonesian texts	Indonesian students	I.I.
2. 10 English texts	Indonesian students	I.E.
3. 10 English texts	Australian students	A.E.

Table 1: *Subjects and Corpus of the Study*

Procedure

Before any analysis was performed, the texts were read carefully to get an approximate understanding of the principal ideas or themes in them. Then each text was segmented into its grammatical units or T-units or smaller units such as subordinate clauses if the identification of interactive relationship was clear; for example, a T-unit can contain two different speech acts, such as a claim (evaluative) and a justification (assertive).

A T-unit is an independent clause including all subordinate elements. Based on the position and function of its T-units, each text was then analysed

again to see if it had the sections of: introduction, problem with or without refutation, solution, evaluation, and conclusion. After determining the sections of the texts, the interactive speech acts in the problem section of the text were analysed to see if there were sub-sections of main claim (evaluative), sub-claim (evaluative or assertive), justification (assertive), and induction (assertive). Then the frequency of the occurrence of the sections and the sub-sections in the three groups of texts was compared and discussed.

The process of segmenting the texts into T-units and labelling the sections and sub-sections of the texts involves subjective judgment. Therefore, samples of the texts were given to three independent and experienced native English speaking markers to examine the reliability of the text analysis method. They were asked to segment the text into T-units and to mark the sections and sub-sections of the English texts. My analysis results and those of the independent raters were compared using Spearman rank-order correlation or Rho (Hatch and Lazaraton 1991); this reveals a relatively high inter-rater's correlation of $p = .803$.

Argumentative text analyses

One of the widely used methods of analysing an argumentative text at macro levels is the analysis of dialogic and monologic communication processes commonly called a "top-down and bottom-up" model, as proposed by Tirkkonen-Condit (1984). She suggests that an argumentative text may be considered as both a dialogic process between imaginary readers and the writer (top-down process) and a monologic process of sequence of speech acts in the text (bottom-up process). Viewed as a dialogic process, an argumentative text ideally has sections of situation, problem with or without refutation, solution and evaluation. The dialogic process is summarised in the following figure:

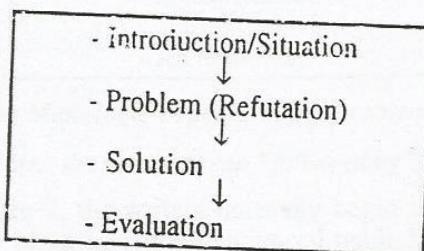


Figure 1: The Dialogic Process in an Argumentative Text

(Note: the arrows mean: "followed by")

As seen in the above figure, the reader is oriented first to the situation through an **introduction** or a statement which introduces the background material—ie facts and views intended for the orientation of readers to the problem area—, then to the **problem**, or a statement of the undesirable condition of things. The texts may or may not have a **refutation**, or a statement acknowledging the opponent's view on the issue discussed in the text. The writer then suggests a **solution**, or a statement of the ideal condition, and finally provides an **evaluation**, or a statement testifying to the outcome of the suggested solution. According to Tirkkonen-Condit (1984) and Con-

nor (1987 and 1990), in the dialogic process, the writer presumes that readers are in a contra position in a controversial issue and the writer's goal is to change the readers' position to one which equals the writer's own position. The goal is not reached directly but via a series of steps or sub-goals. In addition, in order to be more convincing, the text should address a refutation in order to prove that the reader's opposing views have some weaknesses and, therefore, are unacceptable and can be easily dismissed (Levin 1966; Chessel and Birnstahl 1976; Wyrick 1987).

Refutation is an important part of an argumentative text because writers will deal with objections from opponents which are difficult to dismiss (Levin 1966). To establish trust and belief in the readers' mind, the writers of an argumentative text need to pay attention to the opposite point of view, and some of the reasons for rejecting the views become convincing evidence to support their claims or to show that the opponent's views are wrong or irrelevant and therefore unacceptable (Wyrick 1987; Chessel and Birnstahl 1976). Similarly, Franklin suggests that the opponent's views might have some validity; the writers, therefore, must acknowledge them in order to show that they are generous and objective (Franklin quoted in Rottenberg 1988).

When viewed as a monologue, the focus of the analysis changes. The monologic process considers the relationships between the sequences of speech acts in the problem section of the text (Aston 1977 quoted in Connor 1990). A sequence of T-units in this section, for example, can be considered as a claim (evaluative), a justification (assertive) and an induction (assertive). This speech act sequence in the problem section of an argumentative text is summarised in Figure 2 below:

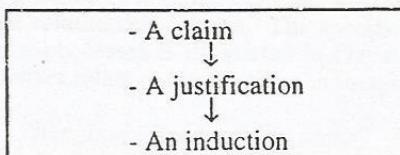


Figure 2: The Monologic Process in the Problem Section

(Note: the arrows mean "followed by")

As seen in Figure 2, the writers normally begin their problem section by making a **claim** or an assertion announced publicly for general acceptance (Toulmin *et al.* 1979:29) and the claim is supported by a **justification** which is "support for the claim in the form of experience, facts, statistics, or occurrences" (Connor and Lauer 1988:144). Finally, the writers address an **induction** or a logical conclusion drawn from the justification or support (Toulmin *et al.* 1984). To illustrate the sequence of speech acts in a real-life argument, Toulmin *et al.* (1979:45) give an example from a spoken text:

- A: There is a fire.
Q: Why do you say that?
A: The smoke, you can see it?
Q: So?
A: Wherever there is smoke, there is a fire.

The claim in the above text is: "There is a fire". "The smoke" justifies or supports the claim and the induction is: "Wherever there is smoke, there is a fire".

Another type of statement that usually follows a justification or support in a text is called a **warrant**. Rottenberg (1988:11) defines warrant as

an assumption, a belief or principle that is taken for granted [...]. [It] is a guarantee of reliability [of an argument]; it guarantees the soundness of the relationship between the support and the claim. It allows the reader to make the connection between the support and the claim.

In other words, warrant is an underlying assumption (said or unsaid) used to judge the quality of an object or a person. According to Rottenberg, warrant is important in an argument, especially in an argument which has a claim of value and a claim of policy. Below is an example of warrant from Rottenberg (1988:117).

Claim: Larry is pretty dumb.
Support: He cannot read above third-grade level.
Warrant: Anybody who cannot read above third-grade level must be dumb.

For this study, both types of statement that usually follow justification or support are called "induction".

In an argumentative text, the dialogic and monologic processes go together in a unique relationship pattern. The specific pattern between the dialogic and monologic processes is illustrated in Figure 3 below (the numbers in the writer's responses relate to the numbers in imaginary readers' questions):

(Imaginary Readers' Questions)

1. What is the point of you telling me all this?
2. On what ground are you claiming this?
3. OK, I agree with you. How would you conclude the discussion so far?
4. What should be done about this problem?
5. Why should we do this?

(The Writer's Responses)

	1) main and sub- claims	2) Justifications	3) Induction or warrant		
Situation/ Introduction	Problem			4) Solution	5) Evaluation

Figure 3: *The Dialogic and Monologic Processes in an Argumentative Text*
(Adapted from Tirkkonen-Condit 1984:221-223)

The top layer in Figure 3 is the monologic process while the bottom layer is the dialogic process. As shown in Figure 3, the writers introduce the situation as background information in their argumentative text; then, in order to answer the first, the second and the third questions from the imaginary readers, they announce the problem which includes the main and sub-claims, the *justification* and the *induction or warrant*. The writers then answer the fourth question by proposing a solution, and provide an evaluation to answer the last question.

As indicated in Figure 3, the problem section constitutes the biggest and the most important part of the text; it consists of a claim, a justification and an induction, and this is the object of the monologic process analysis. Tirkonen-Condit (1984) claims that this is the basic structure of the argumentative text. The principle is to assert a claim, to introduce an observation to justify the claim, and then to induce by virtue of the observation. In the present study, the process of identifying the sections of the text is called top-down analysis while the process of identifying the sequence of speech acts in the problem section of the text is called bottom-up analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The dialogic process

The text analysis reveals the frequency of the sections in the students' argumentative texts as summarised in Table 2 below:

Text Sections	Text Groups		
	I.I. (n=20)	I.E. (n=10)	A.E. (n=10)
Introduction	18	5	5
Problem	20	10	10
Refutation	4	5	6
Solution	19	9	7
Evaluation	12	4	1
Conclusion	-	2	4

Table 2: Macro Organisational Structure

As seen in Table 2, the introduction section is not used as consistently in the A.E. and I.E. texts as it is in the I.I. texts. For instance, 18 (90%) of the I.I. texts have an introduction section while only 5 (50%) of the A.E. and the I.E. texts have this section. This evidence implies that the introduction section in an argumentative text is more important for I.I. writers than for A.E. and I.E. writers. This finding supports the view that the introduction section in an argumentative text in Indonesian is more important than it is in an English text. As suggested by Keraf (1992), Indonesian writers have to consider that their readers might not have enough schemata or necessary knowledge background to comprehend the text. The introduction section is important to pre-

pare readers' schemata before they are introduced to the actual topic of the argumentative text.

In terms of the average percentage of T-units, in the introduction section, of the total number of T-units in each text, the I.I. texts also had the biggest number (35.8%), while the A.E. and I.E. texts had 13.2% and 15.3% respectively. Although this is a relatively small difference, it is important in certain ways. In Indonesian, the introduction section of a text should have enough information (especially for readers who may know very little about the topic of the text) to explain the facts necessary to understand the whole text (Keraf 1992). In English, on the other hand, writers are expected to keep their introductory section brief. Wyrick (1987:66) uses an analogy to explain the effect created by a long introduction: "Long lead-ins in short texts often give the appearance of a tail wagging the dog". In other words, unlike in Indonesian, English writers are advised to keep their introduction as simple and direct as possible.

As far as the introduction section is concerned, the Indonesian writers who write in English (the I.E. writers) are more influenced by the English rhetorical style than by the Indonesian rhetorical style, at least when they write an argumentative text. One explanation for this phenomenon is that the I.E. writers, like other Indonesian students studying in an English speaking country, have learned English for at least six years at junior and senior high schools and for one or two years in an intensive English course taught by native English speakers. Since they are studying in an English speaking country, they have been trained to adjust their writing style to suit the expectation of the academic discourse community in an English speaking country, especially in terms of the linearity of their English texts. In other words, their educational experiences have influenced the ways in which they write, particularly the way they write an introduction in their English composition.

The next important difference between the three groups of texts is in the occurrence of refutation. As shown in Table 2, 6 (60%) of the A.E. texts and 5 (50%) of the I.E. texts have a sub-section classified as a refutation in the problem section, while only 4 (20%) of the I.I. texts have this sub-section. Examples of refutation in the A.E. and I.E. texts are given below:

1. "Some smokers may complain that they might be able to work as fast or as well as they normally can if they smoke, but..." (A.E.1)
2. "On the other hand, we should not ban smoking in public places for the sake of recognising an individual's right of freedom of choice, but..." (I.E.8)
3. "A smoker would complain if I brought my car to the food hall and let the exhaust fumes cover his table and his food, but..." (A.E.7)

The common pattern of the refutation in the three groups of texts is a statement recognising the opponent's view, which is followed by a contrast statement using adverse connectives or an illocutionary complex of concession, such as "but", "however", or "yet".

Unlike the writers of the two groups of English texts (the A.E. and the I.E. writers), the Indonesian students who wrote in Indonesian (the I.I. text writers) tend not to consider the opposing views in their argumentative texts.

The evidence shows (Table 2) that the I.I. texts have the smallest frequency of refutation. The I.I. writers write what Hatch (1992:185) calls a "one-sided argument." This difference might be due to the cultural preferences of the writers. Keraf (1992), for example, suggests that Indonesian writers, when writing in Indonesian, rarely want to consider other people's views because criticising other people, especially those who are older or from a higher social or economic status, is considered culturally impolite. Another possible explanation for the avoidance criticism by the Indonesian writers is that they do not wish to destroy a social or group harmony, especially with people in a small community. A similar suggestion was made by Rubin *et al.* (1990), who found that Japanese students are educated in order to avoid being for or against anyone or anything. According to this study, this avoidance of criticism is important in Japanese culture in order to keep group harmony or in order to avoid social conflicts between the group members.

Another important difference, particularly between the I.I. and the A.E. texts in terms of the dialogic process or the macro organisational structure of the texts, is the frequency of occurrence of the evaluation section. Table 2 shows that the evaluation section is not used as consistently in the A.E. texts as it is in the I.I. texts. Only 1 (10%) of the A.E. texts has an evaluation section while 6 (60%) of the I.I. texts have this section. This indicates that, unlike the I.I. text writers, the majority of A.E. writers do not justify their suggestions. In other words, the A.E. writers only propose suggestions without providing the reasons for the importance or the value of the outcome of the proposed suggestions. Examples of the evaluation statements or fragments in the I.I. texts are given below (for practical reasons, only the English translation of the text fragment is presented here):

4. "You should stop smoking in public places if you do not want other people to hate you." (I.I.12)
5. "Smoking in public places is considered to be amoral and selfish, and therefore people should not smoke there." (I.I.5)
6. "By avoiding smoking in public places, smokers participated in this country's development program; that is to develop a healthy nation." (I.I.14)

The evidence of the evaluation section seems to indicate that the majority of the I.I. text writers recognise the persuasive value of their argumentative text; that is, to persuade the readers to do something or to change their views on a certain controversial topic. As Connor and Lauer (1985) suggest, the persuasive appeal is one of the powerful elements in successful argumentative texts. According to Connor and Lauer (1985:315), the effective appeals are "appeals to the readers' own situation by triggering an emotion that has personal relevance, such as fear, anger, and joy".

The conclusion section, surprisingly, does not occur frequently in the three groups of texts; only 4 (40%) of the A.E. texts, 2 (20%) of the I.E. texts, and none of the I.I. texts have a conclusion section. From a prescriptive point of view, the conclusion is an important section of an argumentative text. According to Keraf (1992), the function of the conclusion is to refresh the readers' memory on what has been achieved so far and why the

conclusions should be considered logical and therefore acceptable. The rare occurrence of a conclusion in the three groups of the texts might be due to the writers' perception of the purpose of an argumentative text, in that they are trying to change the readers' opposing views so that they correspond with those of the writer. Thus, the writers might have thought that their purpose had been achieved after proposing some solution and providing the evaluation for the solution.

Another similar feature among the three groups of texts in terms of the dialogic process, as shown in Table 2, is the consistent use of problem and solution sections: all of the texts (100%) have a problem section and the majority of them have a solution section. This suggests that the writers of the three groups of texts seem to perceive an argumentative task as a problem-solving process, as suggested by Tirkkonen-Condit (1984) and Connor (1987), in that the readers are presumed to have a problem in viewing a particular controversial issue. The writer's purpose is, then, to provide help in order that the readers' view on the issue equals the view of the writer.

The Monologic Process

Analysis of the monologic process in the problem section of the argumentative texts reveals several differences among the three groups of texts. The distribution of sub-sections, or the speech act sequences, in the problem section of the three groups of texts is summarised in Table 3 below:

Text Sub-sections in the Problem section	Texts		
	I.I. N=20	I.E. N=10	A.E. N=10
Claim	20	10	10
Sub-claim	4	8	10
Justification	15	8	10
Induction	5	3	7

Table 3: Bottom-up Analyses Results

As shown in Table 3, the only significant difference between the three groups of texts is the frequency of occurrence of *sub-claims*: the A.E. and the I.E. text writers use it more consistently than do the I.I. text writers. All (100%) of the A.E. texts and eight (80%) of the I.E. texts have sub-claim/s while only four (20%) of the I.I. texts had sub-claim/s. The A.E. and I.E. texts seem to follow the pattern suggested by Tirkkonen-Condit (1984): the goal in an argumentative text cannot be reached directly but must proceed through several mini arguments, each of which has a claim, a justification and an induction. This sequence of speech acts characterises the problem section of the text. The breaking down of the main claim into several sub-claims may be for the purpose of making the problem a manageable case to solve. The common speech act pattern in the problem section of the A.E. texts is illustrated in the text example below (English Text # 2 written by an Australian university student):

Solution [Dialogue]	Function [Monologue]	I-units
-Problem	-Main claim	(1) There are numerous reasons why smoking should be banned in public places due to the ill effects of passive smoking.
	-Justification	(2) Whereas individuals have the choice as to whether they smoke or not (3) passive smokers have no choice. (4) They suffer the ill effects of smoking of whether they like it or not. (5) These passive smokers have no choice in the matter. (6) If somebody nearby is smoking, they are bound to inhale the smoke as they must breathe.
	-Induction	(7) I think it is extremely unfair for an innocent person to suffer bad health due to someone else's smoking.
- (Refutation)	-Sub-claim 1	(8) I have no argument against anybody ruining their own lungs by smoking cigarettes; (9) each individual has that choice, (10) but once somebody makes up their mind not to smoke, (11) clearly it is unfair to suffer smoking's ill effects. (12) Especially, when there is nothing they can do about it.
	-Justification	(13) There are no preventive measures.
- (Refutation)	-Sub-claim 2	(14) Some people might argue that the non-smoker should leave or vacate the area.
	-Justification	(15) Again, this is unjust: why should a non-smoker be forced to leave a public place?
-Solution		(16) It is reasonable for a smoker to enter a public area but not for that person to smoke there. (17) At home, in the car or in any other private place, the smoker is free to smoke. (18) For example, if you are travelling in a friend's car and he/she lights a cigarette, it is that person's privilege to smoke since it is his/her car. (19)

He/she can do as he/she wishes. (20) In this case the smoker has the right. (21) But, in public, the smokers should not have the right since the act they are engaging in affects other people.

-Conclusion

(22) Therefore, many strong reasons exist supporting the argument that smoking should be banned in public places due to the ill effects of passive smoking. (23) It is simply unjust for people to suffer smoking's undesirable effects when they do not wish to. (24) Smoking is a dangerous habit and a health hazard. (25) It surely must be limited to private places only.

Note: The numbers refer to the T-units in the text.

In contrast, the I.I. texts tend to have a single claim which is then supported by several statements of *justification*, and a few of them have an assertive induction. An example of the common speech act pattern in the problem section of the I.I. texts is shown in the following example (the Indonesian Text #17 written by an Indonesian native speaker—the original Indonesian text is given in the Appendix):

Text I.I.17

Section [Dialogue]	Function [Monologue]	T-units
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-Introduction

(1) In today's modern era, technology advancement is improving. (2) Various machines and equipment are created to satisfy people's needs which always improve. (3) And so do the cigarette factories which always improve; (4) many different cigarettes have been and are being made and it has caught a special attention of businessmen. (5) It is a fact that a cigarette has been one of the people's needs that can not be neglected by some people because cigarettes can satisfy and please them. (6) This is one of the views held by the people who have been dependent on cigarettes. (7) If we analyse the above views, they actually contradict each other because cigarettes can cause several kinds of diseases, especially internal diseases such as lung diseases and so on. (8) Various efforts have been made to get cigarettes; (9) some even do illegal actions such as stealing and so on, because they have been very

-Problem		dependent on cigarettes that can in fact put themselves in to danger.
-Main claim		(10) Cigarettes are also dangerous for people who do not smoke but happen to be near someone who smokes and inhales and the smoke exhaled by the smoker or the smoke coming from the burning cigarette.
-Justification		(11) Medical scientists have carried out research about the danger of smoking especially in public places. (12) Smokers inhale a smaller quantity of nicotine in the cigarette than do the passive smokers. (13) This often can be found in a taxi or in a particular room where there are often many people.
-Induction		(14) Thus, we have to consider that cigarette is dangerous for smokers or other people who indirectly inhale the cigarette smoke.
-Solution		(15) Therefore, let us change our attitude and stop smoking at public places.

Note: The numbers refer to the T-units in the text

The above two representative examples show a significant difference between the common speech act pattern in the I.I. and in the A.E. texts; the A.E. text writers utilise more ideas to support their position in the controversial topic and to weaken the position of their opponents in order to influence their readers. The I.I. writers, on the other hand, tend to use only a single idea or do without any sub-claim. Logically, the more relevant the ideas used to convince readers to follow the writer's position on the controversial topic, the more persuasive the text will be. However, the quality of the ideas in terms of the relevance of the sub-claims, the reliability of the justification or support, and the variation of the techniques used, such as analogy and illustration, will also determine the quality of an argumentative text.

Another important difference among the three groups of texts, although not very significant, is the frequency of the occurrence of *induction* (assertive). Table 3 indicates that the A.E. texts use induction the most frequently (the frequency is 70%), while only 3 (30%) of the I.E. texts and 5 (25%) of the I.I. texts have an induction. In other words, in terms of the occurrence of induction, the I.I. texts are similar to the I.E. texts rather than to the A.E. texts. Examples of the assertive induction in the A.E. texts are given below:

7. "I think it is extremely unfair for the innocent person to suffer bad health due to someone else's smoking." (A.E.2)

8. "So, when the non-smokers inhale the exhaled smoke, they run a bigger risk of getting lung cancer or other cigarette related diseases than the smokers themselves do." (A.E.7)
9. "Why should we put the life of non-smokers at risk for the sake of a bad habit of smokers?" (A.E.1)

The majority of the Australian students (the A.E. text writers) seem to recognise the importance of induction in an argument as a part of reasoning processes while the Indonesian students (the I.I. and the I.E. text writers) do not. As Birk and Birk (1967:316) suggest, critical readers will ask two questions in judging the quality of an argumentative text: "Is the evidence good?" and "Is the reasoning sound?" According to Birk and Birk, readers use their knowledge of logic to answer the second question—that is to see if the link between the claim and justification or support is logical—and this link is represented in an induction. This finding seems to confirm Ballard and Clanchy's (1984) claim that one of the frequent weaknesses of the English texts produced by Asian students (including Indonesian) is that they lack reasoned or logical argument, as expected in English language writing.

The similarity among the three groups of texts in terms of the monologic process, as seen in Table 3, is the consistent use of sub-sections of claim and justification. The majority of the writers seem to recognise that they have to take a side or position in treating a controversial topic or issue in writing an argumentative composition, and every claim put forward needs to be logically supported or justified.

CONCLUSION

Although they must necessarily be tentative, several important conclusions can be drawn from this study. First, from the macro text structure or the dia-logic analysis point of view, the I.I. texts (the Indonesian texts written by Indonesian students) are different from the A.E. texts (the English texts written by the Australian students) in terms of the frequency occurrence and the length of the introduction section and the frequency of occurrence of the refutation section. On these two sections, the I.E. texts (the English texts written by the Indonesian students) are more similar to the A.E. texts than to the I.I. texts. However, in terms of the frequency of occurrence of the evaluation section, the I.E. texts are more similar to the I.I. texts than to the A.E. texts.

Second, from the micro text structure or the monologic analysis point of view, the significant difference between the three groups of texts is the frequency of occurrence of sub-claims. On this text feature, the I.E. texts are more similar to the A.E. texts than to the I.I. texts. However, on the frequency of occurrence of induction, the I.E. texts are more similar to the I.I. texts than to the A.E. texts. The other two features of the texts in the mono-logic analysis (the frequency of occurrence of claim and justification) are relatively similar among the three groups of texts.

Third, the rhetorical structures or features of the I.E. texts (the English texts written by the Indonesian students) are similar to those of the A.E. texts (the English texts written by the Australian students) in some respects, and to the I.I. texts (the Indonesian texts written by the Indonesian students) in other

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respects. This evidence shows that, since they have been trained to adopt the rhetorical structure or features acceptable in English texts by their English teachers, the Indonesian students have tried to use the English rhetorical structure or features when they write in English, although they may not be completely successful in this.

Finally, the rhetorical structures of argumentative texts in Indonesian and in English seem to be different due to the cultural differences and the differences in academic writing conventions. Therefore, Indonesian EFL learners need to learn the preferred rhetorical text structures in English argumentative texts in order that their writing in English becomes more comprehensible to native speakers of English. Similarly, English native speakers also need to learn and be familiar with the preferred rhetorical styles of Indonesian, particularly those of argumentative texts, when they write in Bahasa Indonesian.

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APPENDIX

The II. 17 original text (a representative example of the Indonesian argumentative text written by an Indonesian native speaker university student)

(1) Di jaman moderen sekarang ini, kemajuan teknologi semangkin meningkat. (2) Berbagai mesin dan peralatan diciptakan untuk memenuhi tuntutan masayarakat yang senantiasa berkembang. (3) Begitu juga dengan perusahaan rokok yang senantiasa berkembang. (4) Aneka macam rokok diciptakan dan mendapat perhatian khusus dari para pengusaha. (5) Harus kita akui bahwa merokok merupakan salah satu kebutuhan manusian yang tidak dapat ditinggalkan oleh kalangan masyarakat tertentu karena merokok dapat menetralkan dan menyenangkan diri. (6) Inilah salah satu pendapat sebagian masyarakat yang sudah tergantung dengan rokok. (7) Jika kita analisis pendapat di atas maka hal tersebut justru bertolak belakang adanya karena rokok dapat menimbulkan bermacam penyakit, terutama penyakit dibagian dalam seperti paru-paru dan lain sebagainya. (8) Berbagai usaha dikerahkan untuk mendapatkan rokok; (9) bahkan ada yang sampai nekat mencuri karena merteka sudah begitu tergantung dengan rokok yang justru akan membahayakan diri mereka sendiri.

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(10) Rokok juga dapat membahayakan diri orang lain yang kebetulan terhisap asap rokok yang keluar dari mulut atau hidung perokok atau yang dari rokok yang sedang terbakar. (11) Kalangan medis pernah melakukan penelitian mengenai bahaya merokok terutama di tempat-tempat umum. (12) Kadar nikotin yang ditimbulkan oleh siperokok lebih kecil terhisap oleh siperokok itu sendiri dibandingkan dengan yang terhisap oleh orang yang berada di dekat siperokok (perokok pasif). (13) Hal ini seing kita jumpaidi dalam taksi atau ruangan tertentu dimana orang banyak seirng berada.

(14) Jadi harus kita sadari bahwa rokok sangat berbahaya bagi siperokok atau orang yang secara tidak langsung menghirup asap rokok tersebut (15) Maka untuk itu marilah kita mengubah perilaku kita yang terbiasa merokok di tempat-tempat umum.

Note: The numbers refer to the T-units in the text

